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ABSTRACT

This paper reviews recent literature on classroom management, focusing specifically on teachers' techniques for organizing students, space, time and materials in order to keep a class running smoothly so that learning can take place. Four main areas of classroom management research which are relevant to elementary school teachers are identified and discussed. The first area deals with advance planning of classroom logistics. The second involves preparing students for their classroom role. The third concerns teacher management behaviors involved in minute-to-minute classroom interactions with students. The final area deals with the characteristics of formal lesson structures that affect management behaviors. As each area is reviewed, management methods suggested by the research are described. (Author/MP)

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CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT AND LEARNING IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

by
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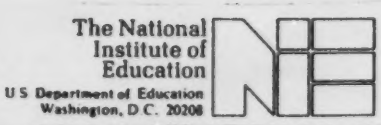

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CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT AND LEARNING IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL*

Classroom management is a matter of concern to all teachers, regardless of the subject matter or grade level they teach. In popular usage, the term classroom management is often used together with the term discipline; occasionally the two are even used interchangeably. In the research literature, however, they are defined differently. Classroom management is conceptualized as teacher behavior aimed at keeping students engaged in appropriate activities and reducing the likelihood of misbehaviors. Discipline refers to other kinds of techniques--such as verbal reprimands or withdrawal of privileges --that are used to deal with misbehaviors when they occur. The present paper will review the literature on classroom management, focusing specifically on teachers' techniques for organizing students, space, time and materials in order to keep the class running smoothly so that learning can take place.

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*It should be noted that the research on classroom management has been reviewed selectively rather than exhaustively in this paper. The major emphasis has been on research which would yield practical suggestions for the classroom teacher.

There are four main areas of classroom management research of relevance to elementary school teaching. The first of these concerns advance planning of classroom logistics. The second area involves preparing students for their classroom role. The third deals with teacher management behaviors involved in minute-to-minute classroom interactions with students. The final area deals with the characteristics of formal lesson structures that affect management behaviors. As each area is reviewed in this paper, management methods suggested by the research are described.

PLANNING AHEAD

It is a truism among teachers that it is important to get the year off to a good start. The validity of this notion is clearly borne out in the research reported by Emmer, Evertson, and Anderson (1979), who observed 28 third grade teachers in eight low income, racially mixed schools over the course of a year. Subjects were observed intensely during the first three weeks and less intensely but regularly during the rest of the year. Teacher effectiveness was assessed by means of student engagement ratings, teacher interviews, and observer ratings of classroom processes and teacher management behaviors. Results showed that teachers who emerged later in the year as more effective classroom managers could be identified by their pattern of behaviors during the first three weeks of school.

What was the behavior pattern of effective managers? According to Emmer et al.

(1979), the most effective teachers were distinguishable by their classroom rules and procedures. Both the effective and ineffective teachers had rules and procedures for their classes but the effective teachers were more successful in two respects: they integrated procedures for dealing with routine student activities into a workable system and delineated these procedures to the students during the first weeks of the school year. Anderson, Evertson, and Emmer (1979), reporting on the same data as those collected by Emmer et al. (1979), found that the more effective teachers were those who had clear notions of acceptable student behaviors and fashioned their classroom structure so as to actively discourage intolerable behaviors. In contrast, the less effective managers did not seem to have clearly formed ideas of what students' behaviors should look like and often waited until after problems developed before talking to the students about expected behaviors. Many of these teachers appeared to have no clearer expectations than that the students would work quietly most of the time and attend to the teacher when requested.

Specific findings relating to classroom rules were reported by Brophy and Evertson (1976). Their comparison of second and third grade teachers' effectiveness in producing student achievement gains revealed that the more effective teachers had relatively few classroom rules. These rules tended to be general (respecting the teacher, walking rather than running) and flexible so that they could be interpreted strictly or loosely

depending on the situation. In contrast, the less effective teachers tended to have either no rules at all or so many that they became trivial and meaningless.

Anderson, Evertson, and Emmer (1979) reported findings related to the content of the procedures and rules which effective elementary teachers had thought out before the beginning of school. Effective managers began the year by attending to activities that provided for students' personal needs, such as getting students' names correct, arranging space for each child and his or her possessions, and explaining very early about basic routines such as going to the bathroom, going to and from lunch, getting water, sharpening pencils, and so on. Gradually, procedures for activities more directly related to instruction, including working in reading groups and getting homework assignments off the board, were added. The more effective teachers had also worked out routines for themselves so that they could minimize the time spent in necessary procedures such as collecting lunch money and taking roll. Hautala and Aaron (1979), in their study of 24 primary grade teachers, demonstrated that a teacher's ability to minimize non-instructional time in the classroom was related to higher student achievement.

As reported in the above studies, effective managers also plan ahead in other ways. Emmer et al. (1979) described the effective teachers as thinking ahead about their potential problems and making preparations. For

example, teachers who foresaw a shortage of materials made sure that they got theirs early. Anticipating a shortage of space for an activity in their classroom, they moved furniture in or out as needed. Planning ahead to the time when they would have an unexpected visitor, they decided in advance that their policy would be to converse inside the room where they could still monitor the class.

Structure and classroom routines may serve to reduce the needs for continual logistical planning by establishing agreed upon ways of doing things which students can utilize with minimal need for new instructions. In addition, such structure and routines may actually serve to reduce anxiety about behaving correctly by helping students know what to expect and what is expected of them. From his observtions of 32 fourth through sixth grade classrooms, Morrison (1979) reported that the most highly structured classrooms (those with a low amount of interactive activity and a high proportion of control by the teacher over that activity) contained the highest amounts of work involvement. This high productivity was apparently achieved at no cost to overall classroom social climate, since there were no differences among these classrooms in student reported satisfaction and since intimacy was greater and friction was less in the high-structure classrooms. It was concluded that "... in the context of these schools, teacher-provided structure was positively regarded by the students, reduced the potential confusion

and anxiety inherent in group life, and freed energy for constructive work" (p. 475).

It is of interest that in these studies, the more effective and less effective classroom managers did not differ in years of teaching experience. This means that in order to plan ahead a teacher need not have encountered every possible type of management problem. In addition, day to day planning may be facilitated by mentally previewing the events of the day, assessing whether students know what they are to do and how they are to do it, and determing whether they have access to all the necessary materials.

PREPARING STUDENTS FOR THEIR CLASSROOM ROLE

Once the teacher has planned appropriately for the desired classroom rules and procedures, his or her next task is to convey those rules and procedures to the students. The degree of effectiveness with which classroom rules and procedures were taught to the students was found by Emmer et al. (1979) to be one factor which differentiated effective and ineffective classroom managers. The better managers spent considerable time during the first week of school explaining and reminding students of the rules. Examples and reasons were used to clearly explain the rules and a few selected procedures. Only those procedures which were needed in the short term were presented at this time, so that the children were taught what they

needed to know but were not overloaded with information. The more effective managers taught the pupils to behave appropriately through a variety of means, including rehearsal of procedures and offering of incentives. They continued to work on these rules and procedures until the children learned them.

In contrast, the poorer managers had vague rules. These rules were sometimes introduced casually, without discussion, or were presented once and then not mentioned again. As a consequence, the children were frequently without enough information to guide their behavior.

Teacher instruction of students in skills of good behavior was also identified by Anderson, Evertson, and Emmer (1979) as one of the major areas of differentiating effective and ineffective classroom managers. The former viewed desired student behaviors as a set of skills to be taught while the latter seemed to view the control of student behavior as depending on their authority and the students' willingness to cooperate.

How did the better managers in this study instruct students in acceptable behavior? To begin with they had clear expectations of what student behaviors were desirable or intolerable and they expressed these expectations clearly in behavioral terms. They also gave students direct instruction in skills closely related to performing school work, such as following instructions for a workbook exercise or taking an assignment

off the board. After children had performed some of these tasks, the better managers gave them very specific feedback, both positive and negative, that included information about the critical aspect of performance. For example, praise usually took the form of "I see that everyone who has gone to the pencil sharpener this morning has remembered the rules -- only two at a time and no talking while there," rather than "You've been good about the pencil sharpener."

Similarly, Brophy and Evertson (1976) reported that the more successful teachers in their study took pains to explain both the rules and the reasons behind them. It was suggested that this helped the students see the need for the rules and thus to be more motivated to follow them even without constant teacher supervision.

Less effective managers, observed by Anderson, Evertson and Emmer (1979), seemed to view students as knowing how to behave well and simply needing the motivation to do so. For example, some teachers failed to present any rules about movement around the room until after many students had already come and gone several times. Even after introducing the rules, the teachers were often inconsistent about enforcing them. When they did try to instruct students in good behaviors, their instruction often did not reflect adequate task analysis or understanding of the students' cognitive capacities. Students were given too much information at once or were given too little time to practice

a procedure. In addition, the less effective managers provided less clear feedback; they would say, "Sit down and do something constructive," rather than, "Take out your library book and read silently."

MANAGING STUDENT BEHAVIORS: ON THE FIRING LINE

No matter how thoughtfully teachers have planned or how carefully they have prepared their students, much of what qualifies as classroom management goes on in the minute to minute interactions between the teacher and the students that comprise much of the school day. The research reviewed on this area of classroom management will highlight teacher behaviors which serve to keep students on-task. The use of student on-task behavior as a criterion for good classroom management in these studies is supported by previous research which shows that the amount of time students spend actively engaged with academic content is related to student achievement in that content area (Cobb, 1972; Fisher, Berliner, Filby, Marliave, Cohen, Dishaw, & Moore, 1978; Lahaderne, 1968; Rosenshine & Berliner, 1978; Samules & Turnure, 1974; Wiley & Harnishfeger, 1974).

In the following sections, three specific aspects of classroom management research will be reviewed: (1) things teachers can do to preserve the "smoothness of classroom flow," such as avoiding interruptions and minimizing

transition time; (2) factors involved in teacher monitoring of class activities and ways in which monitoring can be made more effective and less difficult; and (3) other kinds of management behaviors that have been found to characterize effective classroom managers.

Smoothness of Flow

One aspect of classroom management that has been identified as contributing to greater task engagement is "smoothness of classroom flow" (Kounin, 1970). This refers to the extent to which activities proceed without interruptions and the degree to which transitions from one activity to another can be minimized.

Interruptions: Typically interruptions are student requests for attention that make it necessary for teachers to stop what they are doing. Brophy and Evertson (1976) found that the more successful teachers ran smooth, well paced lessons with few interruptions. These teachers used certain "automatic" techniques to help ensure smooth flow and minimize interruptions. These techniques, which were especially useful when the teacher was conducting small group work, included having one or more students assigned to help others who were unclear about an assignment, having assignments written on the board so that students could double check them, and having specific times set aside for seeking teacher help. In addition, a system

was set up so that students knew what to do when they finished an assignment. They could choose from among options such as reading, going to learning centers, or playing with available games.

Overlapping: "Overlapping," a teacher management skill that minimizes the impact of interruptions when they do occur, was identified and labeled by Kounin (1970). This skill is defined as the teacher's ability to do two or more things simultaneously. It is useful, for example, when a teacher conducting a small group reading lesson is interrupted by a student from another part of the room who has a question about his or her work. A successful application of overlapping in such a situation would be for the teacher to signal the child who is reading aloud to continue reading, and then to attend to the interrupting child. In this manner, the momentum or flow of the reading lesson is maintained and the interrupting child gets the needed help at the same time.

Transitions: Transitions from one activity to the next are another source of time flow disruption. Arlin (1979) analyzed the amount of pupils' time off-task time during teacher-initiated transition time and during nontransitional time for the classes of 50 student teachers in grades one through nine. Results showed that the rate of disruptive

pupil behaviors during unstructured transitions was almost twice as high as during nontransitional times.

Anderson, Evertson, and Brophy (1979), in a test of an instructional model taught to 17 first grade teachers, found that the smaller proportion of time spent in transitions, the more the students learned. In addition, the less time taken to get the lesson started, the greater the students' achievement. Brophy and Evertson (1976) found that in well organized classrooms, transitions lasted only a short time and the students seemed to shift from one activity to another very efficiently. In contrast, their findings indicated that transitional periods in less well organized classrooms tended to be chaotic, with children confused and needing to ask the teacher what to do.

Good and Grouws (1975) used classroom observation and student achievement gains to compare nine effective and nine ineffective third and fourth grade teachers. Their results showed that the less effective teachers spent more time in transition than did the more effective teachers.

Research does suggest some things that teachers can do to improve transition times in their classrooms. Arlin (1979) suggests that smooth transitions can be structured by fairly simple techniques such as advance preparation, "wrap-ups," and "wait-time" procedures for transition such as waiting until everyone is quiet to give instructions. It is important

that teachers not only establish these procedures but also follow through on them.

In his study of teacher perceptions of group cooperation, Doyle (1979) suggests the importance of pacing and the timing of transitions. He suggests that an effective technique is for the teacher to use declines or imminent declines in student on-task behavior as indicators of an appropriate time to initiate transition into the next activity.

Monitoring

Monitoring is another aspect of teacher functioning that has been shown to be important in maintaining student on-task behavior. Kounin (1970), in comparing videotapes of teachers identified through observation as effective or ineffective classroom managers, coined the term "withitness" to describe a teacher's ability to monitor events going on in all parts of the classroom regardless of what she or he is doing at the moment.

Anderson, Evertson and Brophy (1979) reported that teachers who seated themselves so that they could monitor or repeatedly scan most of the class had higher student achievement than teachers who did not. Anderson, Evertson, and Emmer (1979) also found that more effective classroom managers constantly monitored the class to determine whether the students were attending to the tasks set by the teacher and if not why not. Results from Brophy and Evertson (1976) revealed that the

more effective teachers moved around the room often and that even when they were not physically moving, they regularly visually scanned the classroom regularly to keep continual track of what was going on.

Although monitoring is usually aimed at detecting inappropriate student behavior, it may also play a role in preventing misbehavior. According to Brophy and Evertson (1976), the likelihood of children acting disruptively appears to be correlated positively with the likelihood of not being seen by the teacher. They suggest that the act of monitoring itself may serve as a deterrent to misbehavior.

Doyle (1980) also suggests that monitoring can play a role in the timing of intervention to stop misbehavior. By knowing exactly what is going on, the teacher can intervene to stop misbehavior before it escalates into more serious misbehavior and before it spreads to others in the classroom.

According to Doyle (1979), the establishment of classroom routines can help to simplify the task of classroom monitoring. He cites the findings of Yinger (1977) that routines tend to be implemented with greater efficiency and are less susceptible to breakdowns from interruptions than are non-routine behaviors. Based on these findings, he suggests that a teacher can rely on the structure of routine activities to maintain student cooperation, thus reducing the need for close monitoring by the teacher. The obvious advantage of establishing routines is

that the teacher's conscious attention can be reserved for other tasks such as periodic scanning, observing particular students, monitoring certain regions of the classroom and solving other classroom problems.

Doyle (1980) draws on his background in classroom management research to make practical suggestions about how to monitor the classroom effectively. First, he points out that to be able to monitor, a teacher must be able to see. Accordingly, visual barriers in the room which can prevent a teacher from knowing what is going on must be eliminated or worked around. He also maintains that certain desk arrangements such as U-shapes or circles can force teachers to localize attention on only part of the group, so that physically moving around the room, at least part of the time, is a good idea. He also points out that events in which the teacher has to play a major role (such as demonstrations) are more difficult to monitor than events in which the teacher does not play a major role (such as seatwork). Finally, he reminds teachers that they must know what to look for. He suggests that signals of a possible breakdown of an activity include student concealment, furtive glances at the teacher, or, in general, any discrepancies from expected behavior.

Other Management Behaviors

Looking around before calling on someone to recite and selecting randomly for suspense

were management techniques identified by Kounin (1970) as effective methods of maintaining group alertness. However, the overall effectiveness of these techniques has been fairly well refuted by other researchers (Anderson, Evertson, & Brophy, 1979; Brophy & Evertson, 1976; Crawford, Evertson, Anderson, & Brophy, 1976). Anderson, Evertson, and Brophy (1979) found that the use of ordered turns to select respondents in recitation or other classroom teaching situations involving the whole class was positively related to achievement, while random selection of nonvolunteers was negatively related to achievement. This finding was supported by Crawford et al. (1976) in their study of 28 second and third grade teachers. In addition, Crawford et al. found that teacher selection of a student to answer a question before asking the question showed a significant positive correlation with achievement gains. Brophy and Evertson (1976) found that teachers who called on children to read in reading groups in patterned rather than random ways tended to get better gains than teachers who did not. Informal observations were interpreted by the authors as suggesting that patterned reading turns reduced students anxiety because everyone knew when he or she was going to read.

Research on teacher effectiveness has identified other teacher behaviors that help to keep students on-task. Anderson, Evertson, and Emmer (1979) discovered that better

managers were proficient at diagnosing students' needs for information and at knowing what students were likely to pay attention to, what was likely to be confusing and distracting, and how to focus students on the desired targets of attention. Examples of these teachers' techniques include: (1) arranging the desks and chairs so that the students are facing or can easily face the point in the room on which they must focus most often; (2) attracting students' attention during lessons by using "tricks" such as moderating voice, movement, and pace; (3) scheduling less difficult activities before more difficult ones so that students can, when necessary, ease into the morning's work; (4) giving clear indications of when an activity is starting or stopping, providing warnings before transitions, and using other strategies that help to break momentum when necessary or to reestablish it; (5) preventing confusion by spacing directions for two similar activities rather than presenting them simultaneously; (6) requiring students to keep books closed until the teacher finishes part of an explanation; and (7) requiring the active attention of every student when important information is being given.

The relationship of teacher managerial behaviors to student on-task behavior was examined by Goldstein and Weber (1979). Observations of 35 teachers in grades one through five yielded data on student on-task behavior and teacher managerial behaviors.

The teacher verbal and nonverbal behaviors were categorized into seven categories: (1) authoritarian - teacher's role is to control student behavior through the use of discipline; (2) behavior modification - teacher's role is to reward appropriate student behavior and withhold the rewarding of inappropriate student behavior; (3) common sense - does not have a single theoretical or psychological base in that it tends to be reactive rather than proactive and to combine common sense and folklore; (4) group process - teacher's role is to establish and maintain a cohesive, productive classroom group; (5) instructional - teacher instructional behavior is used to prevent or stop student deviant behavior; (6) permissive - teacher's role is to promote the freedom of students and foster their natural development by interfering as little as possible; and (7) socioemotional climate - teacher's role is to build a positive interpersonal relationship and a positive socioemotional climate. Results showed that the use of authoritarian or permissive behaviors was negatively related to student on-task behavior while the use of group process or socioemotional climate approaches was positively related to such behavior. The correlations between student on-task behaviors and the behavior modification, common sense, and instructional approaches were not statistically significant.

Tikunoff, Berliner, and Rist (1975) also identified teacher behaviors which helped keep students on-task. They observed 20 second grade and 20 fifth grade teachers from the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study and

compared observations for the 10 most effective and 10 least effective teachers at each grade level. Results showed that 21 variables distinguished between teachers of differential effectiveness in reading and math at both grade levels. Six of these dimensions were concerned wtih classroom climate, eight with teacher instructional moves, three with teacher behavior control moves and four with teacher characteristics. Some of the specific techniques found to characterize more effective teachers included attending to what students say; monitoring learning by checking on student progress regularly and adjusting instruction accordingly; maintaining an appropriate teaching pace; capitalizing instructionally on unexpected incidents that arise during class time; structuring or preparing students for lessons by reviewing, outlining, explaining objectives and summarizing; and maintaining consistency of control by following through on what one says one will do.

FORMAL LESSON SETTINGS

One of the primary responsibilities of the classroom teacher in planning instruction is to decide upon the classroom format (for example, whole class demonstration, small group discussion, or individual seatwork) in which lessons will be taught. While the choice of lesson format is usually based on content considerations, research indicates that different types of lesson settings are characterized by different patterns of behavior for both students and teachers. In the following sections, what is known about the effects on student and

teacher behavior of common types of lesson settings--teacher demonstrations, recitation, and seatwork--will be examined.

Whole Class Settings

Instructing a whole class of children simultaneously has traditionally been viewed as an efficient means of imparting academic content. Supporting this view are the findings of Good and Grouws (1975) that third and fourth grade teachers who produced higher learning gains among their students spent more time teaching the whole class than teachers who produced lower gains.

Continuous Central Signal Emission: One type of whole class setting is that characterized by activities in which there is a constant source of central signal emission. Kounin and Doyle (1975) defined signal systems as the external provisions of a lesson, such as teacher communications, or the props that go with a lesson and which serve to orient, prod, or support children's actions in a lesson. Activities in which there is a constant central signal emission are those in which the entire class attends to a single source, such as when the class listens to a record, watches a film, observes a teacher demonstration, or listens to a lecture. According to Kounin and Gump (1974), this type of lesson is of only average success in maintaining student task involvment. Perhaps because of the demand for constant attention, this type of lesson appears to need momentum

to be successful in keeping students on-task. Morrison and Oxford (1978), observing 10 boys and 10 girls in four kindergarten classes, found that in situations in which there was a central source of signal emission, lulls of more than 20 seconds were sufficient to disrupt the lesson flow and cause increases in student off-task behavior.

Whole Class Recitation: Whole class recitation differs from continuous central signal emission activities in that both the teacher and the children called upon to recite serve as signal emitters. Maintaining student on-task behavior in recitation appears to be even more difficult than in central signal emission activities. Morrison and Oxford (1978) discovered that kindergarten students exhibited significantly more off-task behavior in whole class recitations than in independent seatwork settings or in settings characterized by continuous central signal emissions. Kounin and Doyle (1975), who investigated the relationship between the task involvement of preschool children in formal lessons and the degree of continuity of the lesson's signal system, found that the length of child recitations, though not the number of recitations, was related to off-task behavior. Recitations of 10 seconds or more in length produced higher rates of student off-task behavior. Kounin and Gump (1974) examined formal lesson settings and task-related behaviors of preschool children in lessons taught by 36 teachers. Their results revealed that the least successful lessons in terms of student on-task behavior were those dependent upon

discontinuous contributions from other children such as recitations, role play or group construction.

Taken together, the research suggests that whole class recitation is a difficult lesson setting for the teacher to manage well. Doyle (1980) suggests that instructional situations such as recitation, in which the teacher is the major source of instructional presentation, are difficult to monitor because of the dual demands for the teacher's attention. Brophy and Evertson (1976) found that ratings of students' apparent attention during recitation had no relation to learning gains. They suggested that students (even at the third grade level) have learned to look attentive even when they are not, so that apparent attention is not an accurate indicator of true attention.

Although monitoring presents special problems during recitation, it appears to be more necessary during recitation than in other types of lesson settings. Bossert (1977) discovered that recitation was the only instructional activity to contain what Kounin termed "ripple" behavior--that is, the spread of misconduct from one or more pupils to the entire class. Bossert suggests that this behavior is due to the need for constant student attention combined with the high degree of publicness of student behavior, which results in the student's attention being drawn by any deviation in behavior from

other students. It should come as no surprise, then, that Bossert (1977) also found that teacher desist rates (teacher requests for a child, group of children, or entire class to stop an activity that violates classroom rules) were highest for recitation settings.

Gross Motor/Loud Music Activities: Another whole class setting for which some research is available is that characterized by gross motor activity or use of loud musical instruments. Kounin and Gump (1974) showed that in terms of student task involvement, this type of lesson setting was the least successful. Attributing this lack of success to the high degree of intrusiveness involved in this lesson type, they suggested that one child's bold movements or loud playing would intrude into another child's field of attention and divert that attention from its intended focus (such as the teacher or the prescribed sequence of behaviors). It is interesting that teachers appear to have traditionally scheduled this kind of activity after, rather than before, activities in which closely controlled student attention is required.

Seatwork

By far the most popular lesson setting is seatwork. According to Doyle (1980), seatwork is used about two-thirds of the time in the average classroom. He suggests that this is because it is a much simpler activity to monitor than are other formal lesson settings.

Since the teacher does not have to play a central role in the ongoing information dissemination during seatwork, he or she may step back and monitor without bringing the activity to a halt. Monitoring is also easier during seatwork because the teacher can trust what she or he sees. Brophy and Evertson (1976) found that indicators of student attention to seatwork, unlike those in recitation, do seem to be reliable indicators that the student is actually engaged in the work.

Findings from Kounin (1970) indicate, not surprisingly, that if students are to remain involved in seatwork, the work assigned to them must have enough variety to keep them interested and must be at the appropriate level of difficulty. According to Fisher et al. (1978), the appropriate level of difficulty is that at which students spend more than 50 percent of their time working at a high success rate that is, they understand the task and make only occassional errors.

Individual Construction: A special kind of seatwork which has received research attention is individual construction activities. Kounin and Gump (1974), using task involvement as the criterion, found that individual construction lessons (in which each child is making something) were the most successful of seatwork lessons. They attributed this successs to the continuing signals produced by the results of each child's own action and to the insulation from external intrusions. They suggest that at each stage of construction, (cutting out a picture, getting the

paste), the end of one stage of the activity cued the beginning of the next. Kounin and Doyle (1975) showed that the task involvement of children in the individual construction activities was not affected by teacher discussion with a child or subgroup of children. They also found that individual construction lessons induce task involvement to the degree that they provide directions and materials which, when manipulated by the child, signaled and indicated what the child should do next. Some of the factors relating to continuity in individual construction lessons were: 1) division of the lesson into discrete subunits of activity; 2) provision of a set of props or material for each child; 3) use of an outside signal--such as displaying a model of a finished product or playing music for children to listen to while painting--to signal that there is more to do; 4) use of children's existing knowledge to signal that there is more to do (for example, in a task involving making a picture of a living room, the children's knowledge that more than one piece of furniture goes in a living room leads them to paste more than one picture of furniture on their pictures); 5) design of props that provide clear signals of more to do, such as worksheets with outlined spaces or slots to be filled; 6) provision of activities such as drawing, coloring, painting, cutting and writing in which the child can perceive progress at each step; 7) use of optional extra automaticity -- when the lesson provides for any of the five activities in category six at the option of the child; and 8) offering of optional extra others -- when any of the first five categories were provided as optional. In

contrast, discontinuity was most likely to occur when 1) a child was stalled because of lack of direction, lack of ability or lack of workable material; 2) a child completed the lesson ahead of time before being redirected into further activity; 3) a child had to wait for props or directions; 4) there was an interruption of 10 seconds or longer in an outside signal system source; and 5) a child was required to repetitively practice an action without any particular product in mind and after the child clearly possessed the necessary skill.

Effects on Teacher Behavior

As noted above, formal lesson settings have characteristics which influence the degree of on-task behavior exhibited by students. It is also clear that the situational demands of various formal lesson settings influence teacher behaviors. The difficulty or ease of monitoring, variations in the publicness of misbehavior in each setting, the need for constant or intermittent student attention, and the degree of intrusiveness of other students' behavior, all combine to define the teacher role required to successfully implement instruction in each lesson setting. For example, Bossert (1977), in his observation of two third-grade and two fourth-grade classrooms in a private school, found that even teachers with very different overall teaching styles exhibited similar patterns of control oriented behaviors in similar lesson settings. His results revealed that all the teachers were more dominating and control oriented during recitation than in seatwork periods in which

each member of the class was assigned the same worksheet or in multi-task situations such as small group instruction.

The general implication to be drawn from this research on formal lesson settings appears to be that classroom teachers can benefit from basing their decisions on classroom management criteria as well as on content related and methodological criteria.

SUMMARY

In this review, four areas of classroom management research have been identified which have practical implications for the elementary teacher. Each of these will be summarized below.

(1) Advance Planning: Getting the year off to a good start was shown to be important to good classroom management during the rest of the year. More effective teachers planned ahead and formulated rules and procedures for dealing with routine student activities. Early in the year, they emphasized routines for dealing with students' personal needs such as provision of space for personal articles, rules for using the bathroom, and rules for using the pencil sharpener. As the year progressed, they included procedures more directly related to instruction, such as how to copy assignments off the board and how to find the correct page in a workbook. Effective teachers had clear expectations of acceptable student behavior and made a few carefully considered rules to promote this behavior. They made plans for

dealing with unusual situations such as the arrival of unexpected classroom visitors. They also planned ahead in securing materials and arranging classroom space. Finally, it was shown that effective classroom planning was not related to years of teaching experience.

(2) Preparation of Students for Their Classroom Role: The degree of effectiveness with which classroom rules and procedures were taught to the students was one factor found to differentiate between effective and ineffective classroom managers. Better managers viewed desired student behavior as a set of skills to be taught in the same way as other skills were taught. Using examples and rehearsal, they explained rules and procedures clearly and continued working on them until the children learned them. They presented only procedures needed in the short term so that students were not overloaded with information. Finally, better managers took care to explain the reasons for rules so that students were motivated to follow them without constant teacher supervision.

(3) Management of Minute-to-Minute Interactions with Students: Interruptions and transitions from one activity to another were identified as events which disrupted classroom flow. Effective classroom managers avoided interruptions by using "automatic" techniques such as having assignments written on the board, having one or more students assigned to help others who were unclear about assignments, and having specific times set aside for

seeking teacher help. Overlapping or attending to two or more things simultaneously was suggested as a means of minimizing the impact of interruptions when they did occur, thus enabling the teacher to preserve the lesson momentum while attending to the cause of the interruption. Effective teachers minimized the time spent in transition from one activity to another. Techniques suggested for structuring smoother transitions included advance preparation, wrap-ups, and wait-time procedures for transition such as waiting until everyone was quiet to give instructions.

Monitoring events going on in all parts of the classroom was shown to be an important management skill. Techniques suggested for improving monitoring included eliminating visual barriers in the room, avoiding certain desk arrangements that force teachers to localize attention to only part of a group, and moving around the room at regular intervals. The establishment of classroom routines was discussed as a means of simplifying the monitoring task by reducing the need for close attention to routine activities. Finally, it was shown that the act of monitoring itself may serve to prevent misbehavior since the likelihood of children acting disruptively seems to be correlated negatively with the likelihood of being seen by the teacher.

Among other teacher behaviors related to management effectiveness were (1) scheduling early morning activities in which it was easy to focus attention and participate right away, so that students could ease into the morning's work; (2) using patterned turns to

select respondents in classroom recitations; (3) starting and stopping activities in a clear way; and (4) preventing confusion by spacing directions for two similar activities rather than presenting them simultaneously. In general, authoritarian or permissive behaviors were found to be negatively related to student on-task behavior, while the use of group process or socioemotional climate approaches was positively related to on-task behavior.

(4) Effects of Formal Lesson Settings: While whole class settings were recognized as efficient means for imparting content, they were also shown to be difficult to manage well. Activities in which there was a continuous central signal emission (watching a film or observing a teacher demonstration) were found to be of only average success in maintaining student task involvement. Whole class recitations, in which students were called upon to recite, showed more off-task behavior overall than continuous central signal emission activities. The length of child recitations was found to be related to student off-task behavior, with recitations of 10 seconds or more giving higher rates of student off-task behavior. Monitoring was shown to be difficult during whole class recitations because it resulted in divided teacher attention; however, it was also shown to be an important managerial skill in relation to the ripple effect--that is, the spread of misconduct from one or more pupils to the entire class. The least successful whole class setting was found to be activity characterized by gross motor movement or use of loud musical instruments. Lack of success in this setting was attributed

to the intrusiveness of children's bold movements or loud playing which diverted the attention of other children from the intended focus (the teacher or the prescribed sequence of behavior).

The most popular lesson setting, reported to be used about two-thirds of the time in the average classroom, was seatwork. Monitoring was found to be simpler for seatwork than for whole class settings. To keep students involved, it was found that seatwork should have variety and should be at the appropriate level of difficulty -- the level at which students spend more than 50 percent of their time working at a high success rate. Seatwork in which each child made something was found to be the most successful of the lesson settings examined. This individual construction activity induced task involvement to the degree that it provided directions and materials which, when manipulated by the child, continuously signaled what to do next. It was shown that the task involvement of children in individual construction activities was not affected by teacher discussion with a child or subgroup of children.

The situational demands of formal settings were found to influence teacher behavior. The difficulty or ease of monitoring, variations in the publicness of misbehavior in each setting, the need for constant or intermittent student attention, and the degree of intrusiveness of other students' behavior all combined to define the teacher role required to successfully implement instruction in each lesson setting.

In sum, effective classroom management, while not an educational panacea, does make the teacher's job easier. Many of the management techniques examined in this paper serve to reduce the amount of time a teacher spends supervising routine activities. These techniques can also help to prevent discipline problems by minimizing the time students spend in transition from one activity to another--the time during which discipline problems have been shown to be most prevalent. Most importantly, however, effective classroom management contributes to increased student learning by maximizing the amount of time students spend on academic tasks.

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